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ABSTRACT

This document contains four papers from a symposium on human resource development (HRD) issues in Asia. "The Japanese Human Resource Development System" (Kiyoe Harada) provides a comprehensive model of the Japanese HRD system based on the current state of the art, including management practices and issues and trends in Japanese HRD. "Structured On-the-Job Training: Status, Impacts, and Implementation Issues in Singapore Organizations" (Ronald L. Jacobs, A. Ahad Osman-Gani) reports on a survey of Singapore work organizations that documented the various forms and benefits of on-the-job training in five economic sectors. "Transfer of Training Programs for Multinational Chain Hotels in Korea" (Doo H. Lim, Rose Mary Wentling) presents a cross-case analysis of transferred training programs of multinational chain hotels in Korea that demonstrated how such programs are shaped by the interacting factors in a three-level hierarchy: cultural and technical, organizational, and personal. "Human Resource Development: The Key to Sustainable Growth and Competitiveness of Singapore" (A. Ahad Osman-Gani, Wee-Liang-Tan) examines the HRD strategies that have been adopted in Singapore and the implications of HRD practices in Singapore for development of a national strategic HRD policy in other nations. (MN)

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ED 428 228

4 . HRD Issues in Asia

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The Japanese Human Resource Development System
Kiyoe Harada, Ohio State University

Structured On-the-Job Training: Status, Impacts, and Implementation Issues in Singapore Organizations
Ronald L. Jacobs, Ohio State University
A. Ahad Osman-Gani, Nanyang Technological University-Singapore

Transfer of Training Programs for Multinational Chain Hotels in Korea
Doo H. Lim, University of Illinois
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Human Resource Development: The Key To Sustainable Growth and Competitiveness of Singapore
A. Ahad Osman-Gani, Nanyang Technological University
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The Japanese Human Resource Development System

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This paper provides a comprehensive model of the Japanese Human Resource Development (HRD)system, based on the current state of the art, including management practices and the work and discusses issues in changing in Japanese HRD. The focus of this discussion is on reviewing literature related to Japanese HRD, a model of the integrated HRD system, and future HRD activities in Japan. Some implications are also provided.

In literature, the development of human resources within Japanese companies has been discussed based on the following perspectives: (1) history of Training and Development (T&D) introduced after the Second World War (Robinson & Schroeder, 1993; Stern & Robinson, 1990; Warner, 1991; Wood, 1989), (2) Japanese management practices, focusing on lifetime employment and seniority practices (Jones & Villlines, 1987; Koike, 1987, 1995; Hanada, 1984), and (3) Japanese cultural influence (Cooney,1989; Durlabhji, 1990; Saha, 1990, 1992). Based on these three frames of reference, characteristics of the Japanese T&D activities can be described. For instance, life-time employment practice allows Japanese companies to invest in their human resources over a long term. Long-term Training and Development (T&D) is based on Japanese cultural values of continuous human growth and capability development, as people age through different employment and life stages with various experiences (Hanada, 1984; Uchida, 1993). In addition, T&D activities are influenced by Japanese human nature as well as management practices. For instance, senior skillful and knowledgeable employees often serve as trainers within Japanese companies, which networks across the company (Lindberge,1989,1991; Stern,1992). Cultural values influence a work attitude, characterized as "*kaizen*", referring to strive for values continuous perfection. Kaizen is felt in the performance of work and the attainment of the highest level of mastery in the work. To achieve the highest level of mastery, Japanese workers strive for continuous improvement (Durlabhji, 1990; Saha, 1990).

Problem statement

Three perspectives, history of T& D, management practices, and cultural influence, contributed to describing Japanese T&D activities and to gaining knowledge of the development of T&D within Japanese companies (Stern, 1992). However, the overview of the Japanese HRD system, including each of three HRD components within the system, has not been adequately discussed. More importantly, due in part to some changes (e.g., the emergence of new Japanese management practices, strategies among Japanese companies, etc.), the conventional HRD system may not be effective in responding to management changes, as well as organizational needs. Accordingly, HRD professionals in Japan have been asking in what ways new HRD should change. The purpose of this paper is to provide a comprehensive framework of current Japanese HRD system, which integrates management practices and the work system. In addition, this paper attempts to provide emerging new HRD activities in Japan by discussing critical issues.

Theoretical framework

To discuss the Japanese HRD system and to provide a model of the integrated Japanese HRD system, theoretical foundations of HRD and Japanese management are used in discussions. The focus of the discussion is divided into four dimensions: (1) Japanese HRD concepts, (2) Japanese HRD components, (3) the integrated HRD system and interaction effects, and (4) the emergence of new HRD in Japan.

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Japanese HRD concepts. HRD in Japan is influenced by Human Resource Management (HRM) practices and the work system. HRM practices include life-time employment and seniority-basedpractice while the work system includes the internal labor market, job rotation, a group-oriented work style, and job qualification competency rankings. From these influences, Japan has developed own human resource concept and system. The concept of human resources can be identified by 3 terms, based on the explanatory translation. These terms are *"Noryoku kaihatu"*(development of abilities),*"Jinzai keisei"* (formulation of a mastery level of human resources through work system and training), and *"Jinzai ikusei"* (fostering the development of human resources through management of a human resource process). As indicated, each term has a slightly different emphasis, however, all refers to the development of human resources and are used interchangeably (Kitazima, 1995; Koike, 1985, 1995; Hanada, 1987). Through these terms, it can be said that Japanese HRD highlights individual employees and their development of work abilities, in addition to various HRD interventions. HRD in Japan can be discussed from an outcome and process perspective. The outcome perspective of HRD refers to the development of desirable human resources, characterized by employees who acquire corporate knowledge and a high level of job competencies to use in the improvement of products or services (Suzuki, 1993; Yamada, 1990). The process perspective of HRD provides learning activities and opportunities through which employees grow and develop their job competencies by increasing potential human capabilities through their jobs experiences (Hanada, 1984).

Japanese HRD components. Three major HRD components are Individual Development (ID), Career Development (CD), and Organizational Development (OD). CD and OD are closely related to ID activities to ensure the improvement of individual performance. The following discussion focuses on each component of Japanese HRD.

Individual Development (ID). Japanese HRD focuses on ID and provides a broad range of learning activities and work experiences. The emphases of ID activities are for employees to attain a higher level of job mastery and competencies (Koike, 1995; Hanada, 1984). Learning activities include OJT, Off-JT, and self-development. OJT focuses on acquisition of job-related procedural know-how learned at the office, job-related information collected from various sources, and customer/client-related knowledge learned through customer interactions. Various Off-JT programs are provided based on:(1) levels of managerial rank, (2) orientation program, (3) job classification, and (4) levels of job competency (Kitajima, 1995). A self-development program for the improvement of job performance includes acquisition of job-related certifications through workshops, correspondence programs, higher education degree, etc., while a program for individual growth includes community services, hobbies, volunteer activities, etc.. Some unique aspects of ID within Japanese companies include the following. Employees are assigned to a program relative to OJT and some Off-JT. The use of subject matter experts within the company promotes knowledge and skills transfer from experts to novices and enhances networking among employees across the company. As such, the company can retain accumulated corporate knowledge and skills.

Career Development (CD). CD within Japanese companies is closely connected to job rotation and assignments, and to the Job Qualification Competency (JQC) rankings. JQC system is a process through which employees are able to increase their KSAs along with a rank of job competencies required for a particular job (Kusuda, 1994). Therefore, as employees go through job rotations and assignments, they acquire necessary KSAs at each rank and accumulate experiences related to the job. In this regard, Japanese management has considerable control and responsibility for providing developmental work activities, as well as training and educational programs relative to one's career development (Kusuda, 1994). There are two major career paths within Japanese companies: generalists and specialists. Generalists become managers through experiencing the number of job rotations, assignments, and transfers. In contrast, specialists are limited in the extent to which their specialty allows vertical career development in the company. Vertical career development within Japanese companies emphasizes seniority along with some consideration of job competency, based on a long-term evaluation process. Conversely, horizontal career development focuses on increased job competency and pay raises based on JQC rankings, with less emphasis on seniority (Kitajima, 1995; Yamada, 1985).

Organizational Development (OD). OD activities in Japan have a long history, which began with Professor Deming from the U.S., who taught quality concepts and techniques after the

Second World War. His quality concepts have been modified and the Japanese people have developed their own OD methods, such as Total Quality Control (TQC), Just-in-Time (JIT), and Quality Control Circle (QCC) through small group activities (Suzuki, 1985; Warner, 1994). OD methods within Japanese companies are integrated into a work process. Therefore, these methods allow the Japanese work system to facilitate continuous changes in work processes and environments. Aoki (1988) calls this " progressive conservatism". That is, the workplace adapts to continuously changing circumstances by using consensus-building and information flow, but it is rather conservative in terms of resistance to radical change. In addition, OD utilizes a variety of learning activities to bring about changes, which focus on the overall human system for the operational improvement of the organization. Learning activities related to OD take place as QCC and TQC activities, and through OJT and job rotation within work groups (Jones & Villines, 1987). The Japanese value of kaizen in the work context, referring to gradual on-going improvement, is molded into these small group activities. Employees involved in kaizen are expected to provide suggestions to improve jobs, not only for themselves, but also for others. As such, kaizen contributes to increased quality, customer satisfaction, and productivity, through state-of- the art technology and a constantly improved work force (Hanada, 1984).

The integrated Japanese HRD system and interaction effects. Japanese HRD has been influenced by management practices and the work system. Japanese management practices include life-time employment and seniority- based promotion and wages practices. The work system includes the Internal Labor Market (ILM), Long-Term Evaluation (LTE), Group-Oriented Work (GOW), and Flexible Job Rotation (FJR). Japanese management practices provide an overall frame for HRD while the work system indicates actual HRD activities. Figure 1 conceptualizes the current stage of the Japanese HRD system and its activities, illustrating the interaction effects of management practices and the work system on HRD in Japan. For instance, long-term Japanese HRD is due in part to life-time employment, seniority, and the internal labor market. ID interventions have a broad perspective, consisting of both learning and educational programs are provided to various levels of employees throughout their employment life in the company. In conjunction with the long-term evaluation and seniority based practices, CD activities are concerned with providing opportunities as well as developmental work activities with OJT through which employees increase their competencies and improve performance. OD activities often take place within a work unit and a work process, such as QCC, kaizen, and small group activities. Then, these activities are broken down to the individual performance level and are effective through group-oriented work and flexible job rotation. Group-oriented work and flexible job rotation allow employees to acquire essential KSAs of the job through OJT.

The emergence of new Japanese HRD. Recently, HRD professionals in Japan have raised questions of the effectiveness of the Japanese HRD system and activities. In addition, several shortcomings of Japanese HRD have been pointed out, such as a lack of professional knowledge and skills and career choice, as well as needs for creativity and flexibility (Ono & Suda, 1997). These shortcomings are due in part to changes in the business environment, corporate strategic planning, and the emergence of new Japanese management practices (Asahi, 1997; HRD, 1993). These changes require HRD in Japan to develop different sets of job competencies and employees' abilities to respond to organizational and individual needs (HRD, 1995; Konno, 1996; Yokoyama, 1991). This section will discuss several issues in changing Japanese HRD to seek the future aspect of HRD.

Issues for future HRD in Japan. There have been primarily two causes for changes in Japanese management practices and the work system (Onon & Suda, 1997; Takahashi, 1994). The most critical issue is the financial burden among Japanese companies, due in part to holding on to the number of excessive employees. At the same time, changes in the business environment, including a matured domestic market, changing consumer demands (e.g., quality and price) have required establishing new sets of strategies. This strategic change, including innovation, knowledge creation, value-added products, and corporate profitability (Konon, 1996; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995), also requires organizational structural changes. The following discussions focus on how these changes are closely related to changing HRD in Japan. Four major issues influence the emergence of a new Japanese HRD: (1) a linkage with business strategies, (2) new management practices, (3) a linkage between performance evaluation and the development of Human Resources (HRs), and (4) the Japanese work system (Hanada, 1996; HRD, 1993, 1997;

Konon, 1996; Ono & Suda, 1997). To conceptualize a possible future Japanese HRD relative to three components, a model of the changing Japanese HRD system (Figure 2) is proposed. It attempts to describe interactions among HRD components, new management practices, and the work system. These interrelations are based on management belief in Japan that human resources can be renewable and maximized through management of human resources (Kitajima, 1995).

As the importance of strategic planning increases, linkage between strategic needs (innovation, knowledge creation, value-added products, and corporate profitability) and HR planning has been imperative for identifying desirable human resources and types of KSAs, that are needed to be developed (Asahi, 1997). This linkage is related to Individual Development (ID) and Career Development (CD). Regarding to ID, desirable human resources have been portrayed as employees who have abilities to establish business strategies and to implement them into business units, to demonstrate strong leadership, and to create new business that brings profits to the company. These employees are innovative, creative, and flexible, as well as possessing highly specialized and professional knowledge and skills in business (HRD, 1993, Ono & Suda, 1997). To respond to these requirements, training and educational programs should focus on individual interests and needs assessment to balance corporate and individual needs. In addition, to develop human resources based on strategic needs, CD should encourage employees to take the initiative in individual career goals and CDP. In this regard, the role of HRD within a Japanese company includes interpreting business strategies and building a close relationship with Human Resource (HR) planning, which is integrated into ID and CD.

Another major issue for the future Japanese HRD is changes in management practices. New Japanese management practices are long-term employment and a merit- and competency-based wage system (HRD,1995; Morishima, 1997; Sasajima, 1997). Long-term employment for an organization leaves a possibility of layoff, while for an employee, it implies an opportunity to change to another company, based on career, salary, and other opportunities. Long-term employment is related to CD, that is, Japanese employees should be provided a broad career choice. Takahashi (1994) proposes four types of employment: entrepreneur (creating profitable business system), professional (assisting an entrepreneur), generalist (supporting a core business unit), and specialist (using highly specialized knowledge and skills in a core business unit). Each type of employment also indicates individual career paths. In this regard, individualized-CDP and dual career paths should be introduced. The role of HRD is to provide career counseling and other career services to help employees establish individual career goals and implement CDP. Regarding merit- and competency-based wage system relative to strategic human resource needs, ID activities should focus on the development of employees with core competencies relative to their career choices. One way to accomplish this is to provide management development programs, which facilitate individual learning needs and interests, as well as delineating core business competencies as a part of Off-JT.

Issues relative to the linkage between new performance evaluation and the development of human resources are concerned with performance appraisal practices and selection. These relate to CD and ID in the HRD system. New performance appraisal practice uses short-term evaluation and Management-by-Objective (MBO) in the assessment of individual performance (Morishima, 1997). Under this appraisal practice, Japanese companies carefully select those employees who become core business leaders in their early stage of employment. According to Hanada (1996), an individual career anchor is established within 6-7 years after employment. In this regard, the role of HRD in Japan should help not only identify potential employees for core business units, but also support the middle conduct managers performance appraisal effectively. Responding to these needs, Possible HRD interventions are management education, career counseling, and performance appraisal.

Lastly, change in the work system in Japan is influenced by organizational structural change. Structural change implies a flat organization with less management layers and a cross-functional business linkage. In conjunction with strategic human resource needs (highly specialized knowledge and skill), project-based job assignments should be frequently used in developing employees. Regarding OD with in the work system, Japanese companies have continued to undertake organizational reengineering, aiming at increasing efficiency in business in process (Asahi, 1997). In this regard, cross-functional work units, use of small group activities, and medium size of business units would be used. Focusing on business units, ID activities should be

linked to types of projects or assignments to increase acquisition of KSAs.

Summary and Implications

New aspects of Japanese HRD, with three components, have been discussed based on changes in strategies and structure, management practices, and the work system in Japan. A model of changing Japanese HRD system was proposed (Figure 2). This section presents a summary of changes in the Japanese HRD system relative to 3 components: ID, CD, and OD.

Individual Development. Major issues in ID activities are Off-JT and acquisition of professional knowledge and skills. Two management development issues are needs assessment and program development. Needs assessment for management development programs should be closely related to strategic planning to respond to organizational needs. Relative to selection, management development training can be used to assess individuals for consideration as future business leaders. At the same time, MD programs should be open to all employees, based on individuals' career interests (entrepreneur, professionals, generalist, and specialist). The role of HRD is to provide training and educational programs for employees, who can take part in whichever programs they choose, based on individual learning needs and interests. Depending on individual CDP, the acquisition of highly specialized professional knowledge and skills in business can be achieved through project-based assignments in addition to job rotations and management training.

Career Development. The most notable change in Japanese HRD is in the area of CD. Providing a wide range of career paths and establishing CDP programs have been new to many Japanese companies (Ono &Suda, 1997). For CD activities to be effective, a CDP system should be established. A CDP system is a process that balances interests of human resources needs and individual career needs. The system should be under the CDP committee within the company, which helps both a company and an individual establish, adjust, and provide feedback on human resource planning and allocation, as well as individual career planning. To do so, a CDP committee also helps employees clarify career goals, necessary work experiences, knowledge, and skills. In addition, individual CDP should be connected to OD through balancing needs for business strategies and human resources planning.

Organizational Development. A flat organizational structure and cross-functional linkage have influenced OD methods. Recent OD methods involves business units, which can be project, committee, and/ or business alliances with other industries. A HRD system in Japan should focus on these OD processes to bring about changes and to increase organizational efficiency. To achieve this goal, according to Hanada (1996), organizational structure takes a flexible network that attempts to utilize the best individual employees with their KSAs. Within a network, individual employees are a member of some work or business units and each work or business unit is related to other units through individual networking. The role of HRD is to provide interventions, such as strategic planning and statistical analysis, team-building and cross-functional training, and leadership.

Implications. Based on the discussions on the conventional and the future direction of Japanese HRD, this section attempts to provide some implications. The proposed model of the future Japanese HRD shows organic interactions among functions of human resource management, the work system, and each component in the HRD system. Interactions among ID, CD, and OD describe interrelationships within the system, which provide ideas for how OD methods can be linked up to kinds of CD activities and broken down into ID activities. Such interaction effects can enhance performance improvement of an organization and an individual. Furthermore, interaction effects and a degree of interconnection among elements in the human resource cycle: Human Resource (HR) planning and allocation, evaluation, and compensation, can be used in identifying HRD issues when any element is changed. Such change indicates not only how HRD can contribute to improve performance, but also what changes should be brought into a workplace. In addition, the proposed model of changing Japanese HRD also indicates where HRD professionals can collaborate with other functions in an organization. By doing so, HRD professionals are able to build collaborative contributions, which result in increasing the reliability of the HRD function and HRD professionals. Illustrating both the conventional and changing HRD system in Japan shows dynamics of changes. A strategic linkage relative to changing HRD

delineates an impact of relationships with each component: ID, CD, and OD. Therefore, HRD professionals can anticipate what changes might take place in the system when a strategy is changed.

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Structured On-the-Job Training: Status, Impacts, and Implémentation Issues in Singapore Organizations

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Singapore organizations were surveyed about the status, impacts, and implementation issues related to structured on-the-job training (OJT). The results showed that some form of OJT is one of the most frequently used training approaches and that there are perceived benefits for doing so. Implementation issues include how to accurately document the work and allowing sufficient time to deliver the training. The results suggest that recent efforts to encourage use of structured OJT through Singapore's National Productivity Board have been relatively successful.

In the past decade, structured on-the-job training (OJT) has received much interest among HRD professionals and organization managers, who are seeking to improve the performance of their organizations. Until recently, most OJT in organizations has been relatively unstructured in nature and thus ineffective. Unstructured OJT occurs when trainees acquire job knowledge and skills from impromptu explanations or demonstrations by others, through trial-and-error efforts, or simply by observing and then imitating the behaviors of others.

On the other hand, structured OJT combines the careful planning that is typically given to off-the-job training programs along with the inherent relevance and efficiency of training conducted in the actual job setting. Research has shown that structured OJT leads to reduced training times and fewer work defects than unstructured OJT (Jacobs & Hruby-Moore, In press; Jacobs, 1994; Jacobs, Jones, & Neil, 1992). Indeed, some form of structured OJT has become increasingly commonplace in many organizations.

Problem Statement

Recently, structured OJT has begun to receive attention from public-sector agencies concerned with economic development issues, particularly those agencies in developing nations or nations seeking to increase private-sector competitiveness. In particular, structured OJT helps address employee competence issues where no formal HRD function exists, a situation that is common in many small-to-medium sized organizations. Of interest here, Singapore's Productivity Standards Board (PSB) developed a program in 1993 called "OJT 2000," which encouraged the use of this training approach among such organizations in Singapore (Pious, 1994). In this way, the PSB in Singapore has sought to become a partner with private-sector organizations to help achieve both business and societal goals.

Although numerous studies are available that describe structured OJT practices and impacts within one organizational situation, few studies are available that describe structured OJT practices and impacts from a broader societal perspective, such as the present situation in Singapore. That is, how structured OJT is used and its effects across different organizations and business sectors. An exception is DeJong (1993), who conducted extensive case studies of structured OJT in various Dutch organizations. However, their results were necessarily limited by the number of case studied analyzed and the studies did not address issues of organizational impacts.

If structured OJT has been proven to be effective and efficient training approach in organizations, and if this training approach is to be used to help achieve economic development goals, then more must be known about structured OJT across more than one organization and business sector. Until now, this information has not been available. This information would also help evaluate the OJT 2000 program.

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Therefore, the purpose of this study was to survey Singapore organizations to determine the status, impacts, and implementation of structured OJT. Such information should provide greater insights on patterns of using structured OJT related to organizational characteristics and business outcomes. Specifically, the evaluation research goals were the following:

1. Describe the present status of OJT in Singapore organizations.
2. Describe the perceived impacts of using structured OJT on organizational performance.
3. Describe the implementation issues in using structured OJT?

Method

A survey questionnaire was developed by the authors and its content validity was reviewed by a panel of HRD experts in Singapore and the US. The revised questionnaire was then pilot-tested among several partner organizations in Singapore. The final version of the questionnaire was seven pages in length and consisted of several response formats, depending on the information being gathered. Most items were presented in a five-point Likert format. The target population was all medium-sized organizations in Singapore from the transportation, manufacturing, construction, financial, and commerce business sectors, which were known to be using some form of structured OJT.

Organizations in these business sectors with less than 200 employees were omitted from the study. Approximately 1200 organizations were initially identified and were sent questionnaires. A cover letter was included from the Director of the Productivity Standards Board. Respondents were the human resource directors, quality supervisors, or line managers who were knowledgeable of the organization's use of training.

Results

The following section reports the descriptive information and the results for each of the research questions of the study.

Descriptive Information. There were 118 organizations that returned completed questionnaires, of which 114 were found to be useable. Thus, the return rate for the study was 13%. Of the 114 organizations, 44 were categorized as being from the manufacturing sector; 25 as being in the commerce sector, 20 as being in the transportation, logistics, or communications sector; 13 as being in the financial or business services sector; six as being in the construction sector; and, five as being other since they could not be categorized. The ownership of the organizations were as follows: 68 organizations were locally-owned; 32 were joint ventures; and, 14 were foreign-owned organizations.

In terms of employment size, 30 organizations had over 1200 employees; 14 organizations had between 1000-1199 employees; 15 organizations had between 700-999 employees; 17 organizations had between 500-699 employees; 13 organizations had between 300-499 employees; and, 23 organizations had less than 300 employees.

Present Status of OJT. Respondents were asked about how the extent to which they use OJT in their organizations and why they made the decision to use this training approach. Table 1 shows that across the 114 organizations, OJT is reported as the most frequently used training method. The results show that some form of OJT, either structured or unstructured, is the most frequently used training method in three of the five categories. OJT was reported as the second most frequently used training method in two categories.

Table 1. Frequency of Training Methods Across Categories

Training Method	*Category*				
	Transport, logistics, or communication	Manufacturing	Construction,	Financial & business services	Commerce
OJT- str/unstr	32	51	50	33	49
Lecture	38	28	48	57	28
Workshop	11	17	0	17	15

Simulation	3	6	16	7	6
Case study	5	8	0	0	7
Computer-based	5	2	0	0	9
Self-paced - printed	0	2	0	0	0

Table 2 presents the ranking of factors which have influenced the decision to implement OJT in Singapore organizations. The results show that two factors -- changes in the organization and turnover -- was the highest ranked reason by 70 of the 114 organizations.

Table 2. Factors for Using OJT

Rank	*Factor*	*Number*
1	Installation of new equipment; change in critical work processes; changes in job tasks	40
2	Turnover of employees	30
3	Improve from present training method	14
4	Reduce number of errors, rework, rejected products	9
5	Overall improvement of quality outcomes	7
6	Response to customer complaints	4

Impacts of structured OJT. Table 3 shows the results of the questionnaire items concerning the impacts of structured OJT on specific quality indicators and affects on employees. The results show that respondents responded favorably regarding the perceived impacts of structured OJT.

Table 3. Impacts of Structured OJT

Item	*Mean*	*Standard Deviation*	*Range*
Frequency of defects or mistakes	2.11	.96	1-4
Frequency of customer complaints	2.3	.94	1-4
Amount of down time	2.4	.93	1-4
Response time customer concerns	2.8	1.0	1-5
Response time to fill orders	3.1	1.0	1-5
Annual absenteeism rate	2.6	.7	1-4
Annual turnover rate	2.7	.8	1-5
Ability to work independently	3.1	.4	2-4
Time required to learn new tasks*	3.0	.5	2-4
Conformance to quality*	3.2	.5	2-4

* Higher the mean indicates more favorable impact.

Table 4 presents the results of comparing the impacts between unstructured and structured OJT. The results show that structured OJT significantly affected business outcomes on two items. The remainder of the items showed that the mean for structured OJT was more favorable in all instances, if only slightly.

Table 4. Comparing Outcomes between Unstructured and Structured OJT

Item	Unstructured OJT		Structured OJT		*t* value
	Mean	Stan. Dev.	Mean	Stan Dev.	
Ability to work independently	3.0	.4	3.2	.4	3.08*
Annual absenteeism rate	2.8	.5	2.5	.7	2.14*

* $p > .05$

Describe obstacles in using structured OJT? Table 5 presents the ranking of the issues that hinder the use of structured OJT in these organizations. The results show that two issues -- difficulty in documenting the work and time constraints -- comprise one-half of the organizations in reporting their highest ranked issue.

Table 5. Ranking of Obstacles in Using Structured OJT

Rank	*Issue*	*Frequency*
1	Difficulty in documenting the work accurately, completely	26
2	Time constraints in delivering the training	26
3	Work disruptions caused by the training	15
4	Inappropriate education levels/prerequisites of employee	10
5	Not enough trainers to deliver the training	8
6	Indifferent attitude towards training in general	7
7	Lack of coordination among affected departments or personnel	6

Discussion

In summary, the results of the evaluation research study showed that some form of OJT has been adopted by many organizations in Singapore. In fact, the OJT was reported to be either the most frequently used training method or the second most frequently used training method in these organizations. In addition, the results showed that structured OJT was shown to have impacted business performance on a number of different performance dimensions. Compared with unstructured OJT, structured OJT showed impacts on ability to work independently and absenteeism. Finally, the results showed that the most critical issues for implementing structured OJT were documenting the work and time constraints to deliver the training.

The results suggest that OJT has become an integral part of many organizations in Singapore and that it has helped make valuable contributions in those organizations. In this sense, one can say that the "OJT 2000" project has been successful in this regard. However, It is unfortunate that the low return rate from participating organizations inhibits knowing the full extent of this success in more than a small percentage of Singapore organizations. However, it is interesting to note that the results confirm many of the issues identified in US organizations about structured OJT. Indeed, Osman-Gani and Jacobs (1996) showed that world-wide managers from one multi-national organization responded differently to their perceptions of various human resource development practices. Through factor analysis, these perceptions were clustered into six dimensions of countries. Yet, the results of the present study showed much congruence with issues identified by US managers about using structured OJT (Rothwell & Kazanas, 1990).

Perhaps, it can be concluded that, in some instances, the global economy has a leveling effect on organizations, in spite of the their particular national culture or location. This may be especially true in Singapore where attention to global competitiveness issues is especially keen. Clearly, more in-depth information about the characteristics and culture of Singapore organizations is required. Furthermore, it seems clear that follow-up case studies should be conducted, similar to Jacobs, Jones, and Neil (1992) which would help confirm the reported information in this evaluation research study.

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Transfer of Training Programs for Multinational Chain Hotels in Korea

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Transfer of training programs between countries has created a circumstance that enhances the knowledge and skills of human resources in developing or underdeveloped countries along with the influence of globalization in recent decades. This study explored the modification process of transferred training programs of multinational chain hotels in Korea. The cross-case analysis revealed that the transfer of training programs had certain patterns of modification shaped by the interacting factors in a three-level hierarchy: cultural and technical, organizational, and modifiers' personal level.

Transfer of training programs is one of the most influential fields of study that can narrow the economic gaps between the developed and the under-developed or developing countries (Baumol, 1986). International transfer of training programs has several meanings. In general, this means training programs that are developed in one country and that are used by other countries. For the purpose of this study, the meaning of international transfer of training programs is confined to the use of training programs developed in the headquarters of international organizations in one country by affiliated or branch organizations in hosting countries. In the private sector, the successful transfer of training programs between countries has been a critical factor for the success of multinational businesses in various organizations (Reynolds, 1990). Despite the critical influence of transfer of training programs on the success of a business, many companies have failed in preparing and implementing transfer of training programs that meet the needs and expectations of cultural, political, and economic situations of receiving countries.

The dramatic shift from products-oriented to service-oriented economies in recent decades has created a parallel transformation in the way organizations are conceptualized, structured and, managed (Albrecht & Zemke, 1990; Zemsky & Oedel, 1994). This means that organizations which place great importance on the design, development, and delivery of services are different from the organizations in product-oriented industries. Along with the impact of globalization and establishment of a world economy, the Korean hotel industry has encountered a dramatic change in its globalization and competing environment of service quality in recent decades (Choi, 1992). Consequently, appropriate transfer and customization of training programs of these hotels from foreign countries have become one of the critical factors for the success of hotel businesses.

Several authors (Ronen, 1989; Hansen & Brooks, 1994) have concluded, that there is limited empirical research literature about transfer of training programs and cross-cultural human resource development (HRD). To build a model of international transfer of training programs, applying a theory of technology transfer to transfer of training programs provides a conceptual framework for this study. Ruttan and Hayami (1973) explain three types of technology transfer between countries according to the level of transfer: material; design; and capacity transfer. Parallel with the three types of technology transfer, three types of transfer of training programs prevail between countries: (a) direct use of transferred training programs; (b) modified use of transferred training programs for local needs, and; (c) transfer of the capacity to develop training programs by the receiving country itself. In the direct use of transferred training programs from other countries, there is no need to modify the training programs for local use. This happens when the target population of the training and the cultural and legal environment of receiving countries are mostly identical. The modified use of transferred training programs occurs most frequently between countries. This is especially true for organizations in the private sector because many more companies have expanded their businesses into the global marketplace. This globalization trend requires trainers in recipient countries to modify those training programs developed in the chain hotel's headquarters to increase employee performance. For the third type of transfer of training programs between countries, Sullivan (1995) illustrates the transfer of capacity to develop training programs in three levels. Level one is for mastery of training content. Level two is a training

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skills course that teaches learning styles, presentation skills, coaching and evaluation. Level three involves the development of in-country master trainers who train the level two trainers.

According to the Korea National Tourism Organization (1997), there were 402 modern tourist hotels with 42,300 guest rooms in Korea in 1997. Among them, 25 hotels are classified as deluxe (five star) hotels and there are nine multinational chain hotels in Seoul. With the inception of the first multinational hotel in 1975 (Choi, 1992), there have been various patterns of management contract for the multinational chain hotels in Korea. Some hotels have been operated by the foreign general managers who control every aspect of hotel management. Other hotels have contracted only for the use of reservation systems and operation procedures of the multinational chain hotels. In any case, multinational chain hotels in Korea have used training programs developed by other countries such as the United States, Japan, and Switzerland, but have had problems in the use of those training programs because of cultural and technical differences in the training content and methods (Jin, 1992).

The purpose of the study is to explore the modification process of training programs of chain hotels in Korea and examine problems and issues in the use of transferred programs from foreign countries. The process of modifying foreign training programs by the local trainers is definitely a time consuming and agonizing process due to the cultural differences and language barriers in the modification process. There has been a lack of research efforts to identify a systematic process or conceptual model for the transfer of training programs between countries. Typically the local training agents modified foreign training programs based upon personal perceptions and experiences from previous modifications. This procedure often does not produce modified training programs that are of high quality. The information obtained from this study is expected to help training program developers develop training programs that fit the modification needs of the recipient countries. In addition, there is no established theory and model of transfer of training programs between countries in the disciplined field of study (Ronen, 1989; Hansen & Brooks, 1994). Therefore, the results of this study can be used to find a general pattern of transfer of training programs between countries and contribute to the theory building in this field of study and assist in the future development of a model for the transfer of training programs.

Questions for Investigation

This study focused on exploring the modification process of transferred training programs of multinational chain hotels in Korea and the trainer's perception of the appropriateness of the modification. The following research questions guided this study:

1. What are the reasons for the modification of the transferred training programs?
2. What are the procedures to determine the types of modification needed for the training programs before the modification?
3. Who conducts the modification of the training programs?
4. What kinds of modifications are made to the training programs?
5. How is the effectiveness of the training programs evaluated?

Methodology

The two major methods used for this study were mail survey and telephone interviews. A questionnaire was used to gather data from the training managers of all the nine multinational chain hotels in Korea. In addition, telephone interviews were conducted with eight of the nine training managers of the multinational chain hotels in Korea. The interview data were utilized to confirm and verify the information provided in the questionnaire. The data provided by the training managers in the questionnaires and the telephone interviews consisted of words in the form of rich descriptions (qualitative data), as well as quantitative data. Essentially, this study used a qualitative approach to answer the research questions. A quantitative method in the form of frequencies and percentages were also used to support the qualitative data. The qualitative method was considered as an appropriate way to explore the modification process of transferred training programs because of its descriptive nature to understand the whole of an event through insight and discovery (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992; Patton, 1990).

Instruments A questionnaire was developed to gather data from the training managers. The questionnaire was divided into five sections. The first section of the questionnaire asked for demographic information of the training programs. The second section asked for the reasons of the modification. The third section asked for the pre-procedures utilized to determine the needed modifications. The fourth section asked for the different types of program modifications. The fifth section asked for the methods utilized for evaluating the effectiveness of the training programs.

In addition, a telephone interview guide was developed, in order to obtain more in-depth information of the modification process from the training managers. The telephone interview guide was developed after reviewing the completed questionnaires. Specifically, the telephone interviews sought to collect the following information: reasons for the modification, examples and illustrations of modification procedures, and the training manager's perception of the effectiveness of the modification.

A study advisory committee, made up of three professors in Human Resource Development (HRD) from a major university in the United States of America reviewed the questionnaire, interview guide and study procedures. Also, a pilot study, involving three training managers of the same target population for the study was conducted to determine content validity and appropriateness of the questionnaire and interview guide. There was agreement by the study's advisory committee and the pilot test participants that the questionnaire and interview guide and the data being collected were appropriate for meeting the objectives of the study.

Population and Data Collection The target population for this research study included all nine training managers of the first and second level chain hotels (deluxe hotels) in Korea. Chain hotels in Korea are confined only to the first and second class hotels. The questionnaires were sent from the United State of America in October, 1996, by mail to the nine training managers of the chain hotels in Korea. A coordinator in Korea, who was selected by the researchers before the questionnaires were sent out collected the questionnaires and sent them back to the researchers. Of the nine questionnaires send, eight (89%) were completed and returned. Among the eight questionnaires returned, seven (88%) were from the first level chain hotels and one (12%) was from the second level chain hotel. After the questionnaires were received, telephone interviews were conducted with the same eight training managers during the month of December, 1996. The telephone interviews were used to validate the questionnaire data and obtain additional in-depth information on the modification procedures. Each interview lasted approximately 30 minutes.

The questionnaire was translated into Korean so that the participants could understand what information was being requested. The questionnaire was translated by one of the researchers whose native language is Korean. The telephone interviews were also conducted in Korean and recorded and transcribed. The questionnaire and the telephone interview data were then retranslated into English for data analysis and documentation.

The data from the questionnaires and telephone interviews were analyzed in two phases. First, for introduction of each hotel and the transferred training program, a general explanation of the hotel's size, the number of employees, and the content of the training was described. In order to seek the common patterns of themes and the likelihood of evolving theory from the raw data, the second phase of the analysis compared each hotel's pattern of modification process of the transferred training program (Gersick, 1988). Here, the five sections of the questionnaire were compared, analyzed, and described. By using this cross-case analysis frame, the researchers attempted to find the generalizations of the modification process of the transferred training programs of multinational chain hotels in Korea.

Findings and Cross-case Comparison

In the following section, a brief introduction of each of the eight hotels and the training programs are presented, followed by some of the major findings. Overall, there were no major discrepancies between the questionnaire information and the information provided by the study participants during the telephone interviews.

Description of the Hotels and Training Programs

Hotel Novotel Ambassador Seoul. The first hotel studied is a chain hotel newly constructed in 1994 in Seoul, Korea. The hotel has 500 employees and 336 rooms. The program is a supervisory training program for the supervisors of the hotel and was developed in the United

States. The content of the training program contains self appraisal for supervision, basic supervision techniques, and case studies for application. In this hotel, the reasons of modification of the supervisory training program came from cultural differences between Korea and the United States. It was found that there was a difference in the hotel employees' conception of interpersonal relationship between the two nations. As Cyr (1993) indicates, Korean people are more emotion-oriented than the American and this creates slight differences in the way the two citizens perceive interpersonal relationships with others. For example, in Korea which is heavily influenced by the Confucian concern for hierarchy, harmony in group orientation and worker respect towards their managers play an important role in interpersonal relationships (Cyr, 1993). Because of this cultural difference in interpersonal relationships, the original content of the training program was not directly applicable to the trainees and needed to be modified.

Hotel Intercontinental Seoul. This hotel has 950 employees and 600 guest rooms, and was opened in 1987. The training program of the hotel is Guest Courtesy Training developed at the headquarters of the chain hotel in the United Kingdom (UK). The content of the training program includes basic service skills for guest service. Some interesting cultural differences that have required the modification of the original training program were found to exist. First, there were different ways of expression between the two cultures. In the UK culture, it is advised to use frequently feeling words, such as, "how are you?" or "how do you feel?" when guests check in. In Korean culture, it is not advised to use those feeling words in guest services because it not considered polite service attitude. Second, it was found that there was a distinct difference in the use of body language between the two cultures. Hand shaking is the most frequently used way of greeting in the UK culture while bowing (bending upper body forward) is the most common way of greeting in Korean culture.

Sheraton Walker Hill Hotel Seoul. Founded in 1961, the Sheraton Walker Hill Hotel Seoul is a franchise hotel that uses the same service standards of Sheraton chain hotels around the world. The hotel has 1,450 employees and 623 rooms. The training content of the Sales Account Management program of the hotel includes selling skills, managing key account, and identifying key customers. One of the main reasons for the modification of the training program developed in the United States is technical differences of the training. Management techniques of the original training program were not directly applicable to the sales people of the hotel because of different sales procedures between the two nations. For example, in Korea hotel product sales are heavily depend upon personal relationship between a salesperson and the client rather than the benefits and low price advantage of the product itself, which was emphasized in the original training program. The training manager of the hotel also indicated there was more modification of the initial modification of the training because of a translation error of the key concept of the training content.

Grand Hyatt Hotel. This hotel has 1,155 employees and 612 rooms, and opened in 1986. The train-the-trainer program of the hotel was developed in the United States and modified for the local needs of the hotel. The training content contains adult learning theory, planning and designing of instruction, instructional techniques, and use of training equipment. The reason for the modification of the training program was to accommodate the different service standards of each restaurant of the hotel. For example, Japanese and Korean restaurants have different service standards than the western style restaurants of the hotel. The original training program was modified to reflect the different service standards for each restaurant of the hotel.

Swiss Grand Hotel. This hotel has 650 employees and 400 rooms, and opened in 1986. The training program is a computer operation course which has the topics of computer operation for the front desk, reservation, and accounting. The training program was developed in Hong Kong. This hotel did not modified the training program because of two reasons. First, there was not enough time for the training manager of the hotel to modified the original training program. Second, the instructor who was a foreign computer specialist wanted to use the original training program without modification and translation because of the copyright concerns of the original training program.

Ritz-Carlton Seoul Hotel. This hotel has 800 employees and 401 rooms, and opened in 1994. The training manager of this hotel has modified a train-the-trainer program which was developed in the United States. The target population of the training program were supervisors, managers, and directors of the hotel. The purpose of the training program was to help supervisory staff of the hotel deliver service training for their own service outlet. The major training methods of the training program were instruction, demonstration, guided practice, and simulation. The

reasons for the modification of the original program were two-fold. First, in terms of cultural aspects, service attitudes of the employees of the hotel was not identical with the suggested one from the original training program. For example, in guest service, required service attitudes of the original training program was not appropriate for the actual guest service of the local hotel. In Korean culture, politeness is considered as the key point of the guest service, while expertise and professionalism are considered as the most important virtue in Western service attitude. Second, in technical aspect, some of the service skills and procedures of the original training program were different from those of the local hotel. For example, the room cleaning procedures for the housekeeping section was not applicable to the local hotel's work environment.

Seoul Hilton Hotel. The Seoul Hilton has 714 rooms and 1,000 employees, and was established in 1976. This hotel has conducted various training programs from its headquarters in the United States, but seldom modified the original training programs. For example, the train-the-trainer program of the hotel that has been used to teach presentation skills to the in-house trainers had no modification for local use. The reasons for no modification of the original training program varied. First, the content of the training was very simple and easy to read. Second, most of the service staff were college graduates and could read and understand the English version of the training material and manual.

Westin Chosun Hotel. This hotel was opened in 1914 and has 477 rooms over 720 employees. This hotel also used a modified train-the-trainer program which was developed by Westin Asian Regional Headquarters in Singapore. The reasons of modification of the original training program were varied. First, the original training program was too long to implement at one time. The training manager of the hotel divided the original training program into three sessions to accommodate the local training needs. Second, there were some unnecessary training topics that were not applicable to the hotel's situation. These topics were removed or changed according to the local needs. After the modification of the original training program, the final approval of the modification was made by the general manager of the hotel. During the implementation of the training program, the instructors were advised to adapt the level of instruction reflecting the pre-experiences and skill levels of the participants. For program evaluation, video feedback and a checklist were used to improve the participants' instructional skills. Unlike other hotels, the training manager of the hotel provided both English and Korean version of training texts to the trainees in the earlier training sessions to check the appropriateness of the translation of the original training program.

Modification Reasons of Transferred Training Program According to the findings, of the eight hotels, six (75%) have modified training programs transferred from foreign countries. There were many reasons for modification of the transferred training programs. Related to cultural aspects, national culture has influenced the modification process of transferred training program to a great degree. Several cultural differences that have caused the modification of the training programs were identified, such as interpersonal relationship, legal issues, expressions in verbal language and body language, and service attitude and etiquette. Related to technical aspects, the service skills and procedures of Korean hotel outlets were slightly different from those of the countries which developed the original training programs. Of the eight hotels, two (25%) delivered the transferred training programs without modification. The reasons for no modification were because there was no need to modify the transferred program by the instructor or the transferred programs were very simple and easy to understand by the trainees.

In addition to the cultural and technical aspects, the findings also revealed other domains that influenced the modification of the transferred training programs. First, the differences in organizational culture, policies, and practices of the chain hotels in Korea have influenced the modification processes. These factors determined the degree of the modification of the training programs. These factors explain why some hotels modified all of the training material, even video dubbing, while other hotels modified only part of the training material, such as trainee handouts and trainer manuals. For example, in one hotel, HRD budget restriction was one of the factors that determined the degree of modification. Second, the personal expertise of the training manager to modify and translate the training was another domain required for successful modification. According to the modifier's level of expertise, the modification of some training programs were finished by a one time event or went through a second or third modification process after the initial modification.

From these findings, a hierarchy of modification reasons of the transferred training programs seems to emerge. In the upper level of the hierarchy, the cultural and technical differences

between countries played the major roles of the whole modification process. In the middle level, the organizational factors (organization culture, policies, and practices) also influenced the range of the modification processes to a great degree. In the in-depth level, modifier's personal expertise determined the detailed quality of the modified training programs. All together, the influencing factors of the three domains were found to interact to each other to shape the specific pattern of modification of the training program of multinational chain hotels in Korea.

Modification Procedure The study results indicated that the following three phases comprised the whole modification procedure: needs assessment, modification, and follow-up modification. In the pre-stage of the modification, needs assessment before the actual modification affected the effectiveness of the modification. It was identified that there were two types of needs assessment: one that was conducted through actual survey, observations, and interviews with the target population of the training programs; and the other that was drawn from the training managers' conjecture of the modification needs of the training programs. Two (25%) of the hotels used needs assessment for the modification. One hotel's training manager conducted needs assessment through personal conjecture of the required training needs.

Three (38%) of the hotel training managers indicated that they conducted more modification of the initial modification of the training programs. The reasons for more modification were emerging needs to update new service standards after a certain period of time and the inappropriateness of the initial modification.

Evaluation of the Training Program The participants of the study were asked the effectiveness of the evaluation of the training program according to Kirkpatrick's four level evaluation model (Kirkpatrick, 1996). Level one of the evaluation model assessed the satisfaction of the trainees regarding the training. Level two evaluates the degree of knowledge acquisition. Level three determines to what extent there has been transfer of training on the job. Level four assesses financial return on training investment for the organization. Four (50%) of the hotels were using level 1, 2, and 3 for the evaluation of the transferred training. Two (25%) of the hotels were using level 1 and 2. Another two (25%) of the hotels were using level 1 or 2 only respectively. For level 1 evaluation, most of the hotels were using satisfaction sheet and for level 2, pencil and paper test. For level 3 evaluation, participants were using observations and feedback sessions with the trainees after a certain period of time from the training. Two (25%) of the training managers reported that level 3 was very difficult to evaluate because the change of service attitude after training was hard to be observed or evaluated in service training.

Other Findings

Modifier and instructor of the training programs. Modifiers of the transferred training programs were generally training managers of the hotels. For five (63%) of the hotels the modifiers were the training managers. For three (38%) of the hotels internal or external subject experts were consulted for program modification. In one hotel a subject expert was hired to do the modification. In most cases, instructors of the transferred training programs were identified as the training managers of the hotels. According to the content of the training, internal or external subject experts were utilized to deliver the training.

It is evident from the findings that the majority of the modified training programs were mandated by the hotels' headquarters or by the management decision. None of the hotel training managers had an opportunity to reflect the local training needs on the design or development of the original training programs. However, some training managers indicated that they had developed other training programs that were necessary to meet the local training needs when those mandated by the headquarters were not adequate. It seems that the headquarters of multinational chain hotels in Korea intentionally control the key training programs to keep the service standards of their hotels in a certain level across the nations.

Terminology and translation. Among the eight hotels, three (38%) of the training managers mentioned that their training program had a terminology section in the training manual. Of the three training managers, two had experienced that it was very helpful to understand the jargon and complicated concepts of the training content. The terminology section was also said to help in the translation and modification process of the transferred training programs. All six hotels which had modified the training programs had also translated the training materials. In five hotels, training managers translated the original materials and in one hotel an external translator was hired for the translation. Regarding literacy level, of the six hotels, four used college literacy level and the remaining two hotels used high school literacy level.

Training content and modification. Training content was also found to be one of the factors affecting the modification of transferred training programs. In the survey, four (50%) of the training programs were train-the-trainer programs. One (13%) of them was technical training, another one (13%) of them was for managerial skills, and two (25%) of them were related to guest service training. The findings revealed that some training programs had more modification needs than others because of the training content. For example, some train-the-trainer programs contained cross national training methods and content, so modification was not necessary. The findings also revealed that two (25%) of the hotels were employing modifications or modified uses of train-the-trainer programs at the departmental or sectional levels. The findings seem to indicate that culture insensitive training programs require less modification needs than culture sensitive training program in the initial stage. Also, culture insensitive training programs seem to be modified or customized at the application stage according to specific organizational needs.

Discussion

The results of this study reveals that most multinational deluxe chain hotels in Korea are experiencing transcultural transfer of training programs whether those are transferred for direct use or entail various patterns of modification of the transferred training programs. Two groups of professionals in the HRD field can benefit from the results of this study: training program users and developers of training programs. For program users of transferred training programs from foreign countries, this study provides several suggestions. First, it is strongly recommended to conduct needs assessment for the effective modification of the transferred training programs. The results of this study seem to indicate that involving internal and external subject experts in the modification of the subject area of the training will help avoid unnecessary modification processes. Similarly Lee (1994) and Moller (1995), noted that the roles of internal and external subject matter experts and instructional designers are different, but both influence the design of a quality training program to a great degree. Second, after a modification process, follow-up of the initial modification leads to ultimate success of the transferred training. For example, follow-up modification to update the outdated training content helps respond to new training needs of the target population. In addition, evaluation of the use of modified training becomes an important clue for more modification and successful transfer of training on the job. Third, modifier's expertise both in the subject matter and the modification process determines the quality of the modified training program. As one training manager indicated, "HRD staff have to have sufficient field experience to modify these kinds of training programs." Training managers' pre-experience in similar kinds of modification also decreased the need for additional follow-up modifications. Fourth, one thing that was advised for the modification of the transferred training programs in Korean chain hotels was systematic evaluation. None of the hotels in the study designed evaluation methods to screen the effectiveness of modification process at the planning stage. To determine the effectiveness of modification of transferred training programs establishing a systematic evaluation that is providing continuous feedback at each stage of modification process is critical for the ultimate success of the modification efforts (Cafferella, 1994; Johnson & Kusmierek, 1987).

The study results also provides valuable information for training program developer of multinational companies. The study showed an emerging pattern of modification which comprises a three-level hierarchy: cultural and technical factors of the upper level, organization culture, policies, and practices of the middle level, and personal expertise of the in-depth level of the hierarchy. From this, training program developers of multinational companies should take into account these influencing factors at all three levels in order to develop training programs that travel well across countries.

The transferred training programs of multinational chain hotels in Korea are not the only examples that encountered the modification processes mentioned above. Many chain hotels in other countries also require quality training programs from headquarters which entail modification processes for their own uses (Koss, 1995; Morical & Tsai, 1992). In any case, modification of some programs were more successful than others because of the influencing factors in the three-level hierarchy. All together, these factors interact with each other to shape a specific pattern of modification process of each training program. Among many suggestions for the successful modification, use of manuals, modules, and terminology were found to be very useful for the

effective modification. Evaluation is another activity that decides the ultimate success of the modification efforts.

Future research should investigate the framework of this study in other countries and industries. Combined with qualitative study, extensive quantitative study will be needed to set up a model of international transfer of training programs between countries.

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Human Resource Development: The Key To Sustainable Growth and Competitiveness of Singapore

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The quality of human resources of a nation will determine their competitiveness in the 21st century. The well equipped and skilled human resources will contribute to individual, organizational and national development through improved performance. In Singapore's case, it has used its location and its human resources to the greatest possible advantage through effective human resource development strategies. It has succeeded in being included in the top five of the competitiveness lists each year. This paper examines the human resource development strategies adopted in Singapore and argues that there are lessons on human resource development at a national strategic level for other nations.

Of all the resources available to an organisation, human resource is the most important factor contributing to the sustainable growth for achieving organizational objectives irrespective of the status of economic development of the country in today's global business environment. However, most developing economies in their pursuit of economic growth fail to pay proper attention to human resource development (HRD) as part of their long term strategies. Instead, it has been observed that more often than not, less developed economies are keen to recruit foreign investments for their development, sometimes overlooking the significance on the investments in human capital to develop their own potential human resource. It has been increasingly realised of late that people are an important resource and a key element for continued national competitiveness (Porter, 1990;Hewlett, 1991). However, most of the attention paid to human resources at a national level has been confined to the realm of human capital and education (Shultz, 1963; Becker, 1985). Few nations have evinced an integrated human resource development strategy as part of its plans for sustainable economic development. Singapore is a unique instance.

In Singapore's case, human resource is a critical resource because it is the only resource that has enabled Singapore to succeed thus far in its economic development. Human resources are Singapore's single most important resource, which became a core element in its strategic economic plan (Ministry of Trade and Industry, 1991). In the early days of its economic development, the efforts at human resource development came under the rubric of "manpower development", ""general education," "technical education" and "training". As it moved from economic growth that is driven by investment to that which is driven by innovation, together with its emphasis on the regionalisation of business, human resource development strategies were found to be more sophisticated. It has become necessary to recruit professional talents and other qualified human resources from overseas and develop the knowledge and skills of local manpower. The human resource development strategies have been continuously revised and adjusted in conjunction with other national strategic economic policies. Singapore is, thus, a unique case which exemplifies the benefits of national human resource development policies and strategies. Although there were some studies done on micro-level human resource development practices, very little research has been done in this respect on the strategic and macro level (Osman-Gani and Toh, 1997; Osman Gani, 1996).

This paper seeks to outline the history of human resource development in Singapore, the current human resource strategies, and the elements of the human resource development infrastructure.

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Methodology

Apart for the location which is its competitive advantage, Singapore lacks the key attributes endearing it for international business success - capital and land. Labour is the only resource it has. Whilst Singapore grew in the early days of its economic development, leveraging on cheap labour, it is no longer the key strategy to which its economic success can be attributed. It is a miracle as Singapore has appeared to overcome its deprivations in factors of production (Kao, 1995). This paper is developed based on the findings from the relevant publications (government and academic) and other secondary materials on human resource development strategy of Singapore and its role in Singapore's economic development. The authors also draw upon interviews with selected key individuals involved in the development and implementation of the HRD strategies.

Findings

Recognising The Importance of Developing Human Resources In Singapore, human resource development has been a key strategy for economic growth since its early beginning. The importance of human resources was realised early with a strong emphasis placed on education and technical training. A perusal of the policies prior to independence, in the early days of self-government in 1959, reveals that the government ministers were far-sighted in realising that training and education of human resources are crucial for economic development. The architect of Singapore's early industrialisation, Goh Keng Swee (1961), a former Cabinet minister highlighted the importance of education and manpower training in his early policy statements. He highlighted it as the second vital requirement for economic development after capital, noting that, "The second vital requirement is know-how. This is not a matter of engaging a few experts ... It means raising the general education standards of the whole population. It also means the establishment of technical institutions, training centres and other facilities on a massive scale. This is a costly and long process." Since then, Singapore's education policies are tied to the economic needs of the nation.

The manner in which the human resource development strategy is implemented in Singapore can be illustrated by the technical education programme initiated in the early days of industrialisation. Singapore embarked on an industrialisation strategy in the 1970s with the aims of creating employment and generating income. Once the government decided to go for a rapid industrialisation strategy for national economic development, it embarked on an intense and determined strategy to develop and improve the technical education. A major restructuring of education took place with the introduction and emphasis on scientific and technical education in 1969 - a two-year course combining academic and technical subjects was introduced in the secondary school education for all boys and for 50% of the girls. After this two-year course, students were streamed into academic, technical or commercial subjects. Additional technical vocational institutes to serve the electrical, building and metal trades were established. A National Technical Institute (presently the Institute of Technical Education) was established in 1970; the student enrolment ratio between academic and technical education was reduced from 6:1 in 1968 to 2:1 by 1972; engineering and technology was emphasised at the tertiary level; and a new Ministry of Science and Technology was established in 1968 to co-ordinate the Government's science policies and the development of Singapore's scientific and technological manpower (Chew, 1971).

Similarly, human resource development came to the fore when there was economic restructuring in the early 1980s. The new industrial strategy to restructure and upgrade Singapore's manufacturing sector was promulgated in 1979 (Chng, Low, Tay and Tyabji, 1986). It emphasised higher value-added, skill and technology-intensive industries, thus posing challenges to the workers, unions and employers in the area of human resource development. Human resources had to be developed specially to make them familiar with automation, computer aided design and manufacture, and other modern technologies.

Integrating HRD with Other Economic Strategies It is clear from the Singapore case that human resource development is not taken in isolation in relation to the other aspects of national objectives in general and economic strategies in particular. A multidisciplinary or more accurately a multi-departmental approach to human resource development is adopted. The unique features of this approach are the multi-agency networks and tripartite institutions.

Multi-departmental Approach. Singapore adopts a multi-departmental approach to its national policy decisions, be it planning or implementation. The multi-departmental approach takes place formally in the form of permanent committees, councils or *ad hoc* committees; and informal meetings.

Manpower planning is the backbone of Singapore's human resource development strategy. Information about the future human resource needs of Singapore are ascertained by the Ministry of Trade and Industry and its various agencies such as the Investment Board. The information is collated by the Ministry and translated by the Economic Development Board (EDB) into targets for the specific skills required by the nation. These targets and the information forwarded to the Council for Professional and Technical Education (CPTE) for their deliberation. It is at this point that the relevant agencies provide feedback on the time frames within which they are able to attain those targets. The Council was formed in 1979 as a national body, chaired by the Minister for Trade and Industry, to set targets for education and training at all levels - determining the specific numbers of different skills to be trained by the universities, polytechnics, schools and the Institute of Technical Education (Chng, Low, Tay and Tyabji, 1986). The Council for Professional and Technical Education comprises members from various government departments. The current composition[1] is depicted in Figure 1 below:

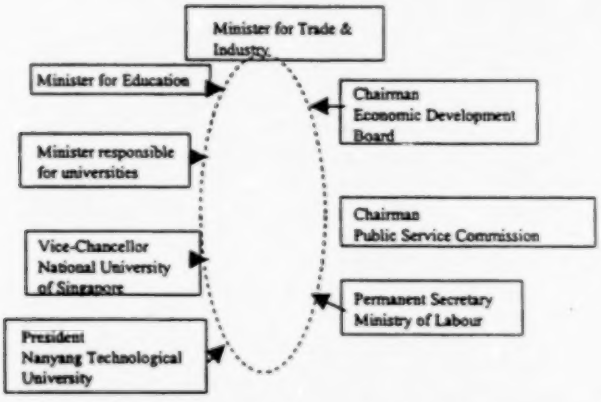
Minister for Trade & Industry
Minister for Education
Chairman Economic Development Board
Minister responsible for universities
Chairman Public Service Commission
Vice-Chancellor National University of Singapore
Permanent Secretary Ministry of Labour
President Nanyang Technological University

Figure 1: National Manpower Planning in Singapore

It must be acknowledged that the time lag between the demand forecast and the supply is a factor that works against this attempt to develop the required manpower resources (Chew,1971). However, the agencies work hard at overcoming this through longer term forecasts and swiftness in implementing plans.

Other examples of multi-departmental action can be seen in the Economic Committee formed following Singapore's first post-independence recession in 1983-84 to make recommendations on the Singapore Economy. This committee comprised key individuals from government and the private sector. Human resource development was significant in their recommendations under the headings of manpower supply, and education and training. Integral to the recommendations were upgrading of the workforce, continuing education, professional training, industry- and employer-based training, and the inculcation of flexible and creative skills.

Tripartism. Tripartism, the symbiotic relationship among the employers, the unions and the government, has been central to the success of Singapore's human resource development strategies. Although tripartism is not confined to human resource development, it features significantly in the HRD strategies. "The word is new and ... is not found in an English or American dictionary (Lim, 1994)." The Skills Development Fund (SDF), the National Wages Council, and the Productivity and Standards Board (PSB) are institutions that are based on tripartite partnership (government, employers, and employees). National human resource development strategies require the co-operation of all the relevant parties. In Singapore, the government participates both as employer and policy maker. The tripartite relationships ensure that there is agreement over the strategies and the necessary implementation steps. The policy of training and retraining of workers to upgrade them with skills for the economic restructuring in the early 1980s was possible only with the acceptance and co-operation of the unions. In the following section, the work of the National Wages Council and the Skills Development Fund are briefly outlined.

The National Wages Council (NWC) is a tripartite body with top level representatives from the government (in the form of the Permanent Secretaries), trade union representatives and employers' representatives (two from American MNCs, two from Japanese MNCs, two from German MNCs and four Singapore company representatives). The Council conducts an

annual tripartite audit on changes in the Singapore economy, particularly in the wages sector in relation to the level of employment and unemployment, international competitiveness, equity to workers and employers, inflation rate and productivity enhancement (Lim, 1994). The aim of the thorough audit is to provide the Council with information to best set out the wage guidelines which form the basis of reference should employers and unions fail to agree on any important wage issues. The guidelines, though non-mandatory in nature, are used in wage negotiations and by the Industrial Arbitration Court in their deliberations. This Council plays an important role in human resource development at the national level as it is responsible for the motivational aspects in terms of compensation and other elements of the wage package. As it comprises all the relevant parties and functions on the principle of unanimity and strict confidentiality, the guidelines are widely respected and widely regarded as binding in practice.

The Skills Development Fund was created following a recommendation by the tripartite National Wages Council. The SDF board has representatives from the government, employers and unions. Professor Lim Chong Yah, one of the respondents to our study and founding chairman of the SDF and the NWC, recalls that he based the suggestion on an earlier scheme he was similarly responsible for in Malaysia. "Employers are not inclined to spend money on training unless there was a scheme to entice them to do so," Lim recalled. "The situation in Singapore was no different from the situation in Malaysia where the rubber plantation owners were reluctant to replant trees. A fund had to be created whereby owners had to make compulsory contributions from which they would be able to withdraw sums when they replanted." Hence, the Skills Development Fund to which employers contributed one percent of the wages of each employee whose salary is less than $1,000 a month or $2 per employee with wages less than $1,000 a month. The employers are motivated to send employees for approved training programmes as that is the only avenue for them to derive a benefit from their contributions. Under the SDF, employers who train their own workers could get substantial financial support from the SDF and the extent of support is not related to their own contributions (Lim, 1994). The SDF thus serves to motivate employers to send their employees for training and avail the subsidy from SDF for such training.

Providing Human Resource Development Delivery Systems Having neat plans are insufficient for human resource development at a national level, what is required is a host of delivery systems. In Singapore, the subsystems put in place address both specialised training and general education. The education systems provide training both on a formal and informal basis, and also address the issues of on-the-job training at the firm level.

Institute of Technical Education (ITE). Lower level technical education and training is provided at the Institute of Technical Education. It admits secondary school leavers for the technical training and it seeks to upgrade the technical skills for the workforce with the view of establishing a pool of highly skilled manpower to support Singapore's economic development (ITE, 1996). The type of technical education catered by the Institute encompasses apprenticeship training (there are 660 participating companies and 70 apprentice programmes), industrial skills courses leading to national technical certificates, customised skills training (tailored to the needs of enterprises), industry-based training (special courses organised by ITE in conjunction with selected industries) and worker education (primary and secondary school levels). ITE has a network of 11 technical institutes (TIs). They are located at population centres which are easily accessible by public transport. All TIs are connected to the corporate headquarters via computer. Each year, some 16,000 full-time training places are available at ITE.

General education programmes for the working population. A number of broad-based training programmes have been introduced and funded by the Skills Development Fund to address the level of education of the working population. The Basic Education for Skills Training (BEST) programme is targeted at workers aged below 40 years with less than the Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE) qualification from all language streams and workers with secondary education below the Singapore-Cambridge University General Certificate of Education 'O' Level (GCE 'O') from non-English streams. It provides primary education in English and Mathematics. The Worker Improvement through Secondary Education (WISE) programme provides secondary education in English and Mathematics for workers with PSLE or BEST-4 level but less than GCE 'O' level education. Skills training is available for workers during the evenings and weekends under the Modular Skills Training (MOST) and Training Initiative for Mature Employees (TIME) programmes. Apprenticeships are also arranged for young people. To encourage housewives and retirees to rejoin the workforce a new programme entitled Back To Work (BOW) was launched in September 1996. The BOW programme is the result of a tripartite effort by the government, union and employers to meet the manpower challenges as Singapore moves ahead in the next

phase of economic development. The Singapore Productivity and Standards Board (PSB) and the Ministry of Labour (MOL) are spearheading the new programme being implemented together with the Singapore National Employers Federation (SNEF) and the National Trades Union Congress (NTUC).

Firm Level Training. The Productivity and Standards Board (PSB) and its predecessor, the National Productivity Board collaborated with leading private sector companies to establish national training programmes. Some twelve partnership programmes have been established since 1988. At the firm level, the PSB encourages and provides training for firms wishing to introduce structured on-the-job training (SOJT). The SOJT has seen considerable success in a number of large firms. It has enabled firms to continue to operate efficiently even in Singapore's tight labour market. The objectives of OJT2000 plan have been achieved much earlier than the stipulated period.

Being Daring and Innovative One other explanation for the success of Singapore's human resource development strategies lies in the willingness on the part of the nation to be bold and innovative in their strategies. The boldness is illustrated in the system of streaming that occurs in the education system, the emphasis on human resource development as a key strategic thrust in Singapore strategic economic plan, and the measures that have been put into place to address the needs and skills required in the economy by recruiting them from overseas. A brief description of the unique features of Singapore's education system is provided below in this context.

Singapore's Education System. Singapore's education system is integrally linked to its human resource development strategies. This link was partially shown by the earlier discussion on the role of the CPTE. The education system is structured upon meritocracy and a series of filters are used that stream each cohort of students into the relevant vocations and institutions. A schematic diagram of the education system is shown in Figure 2. Primary education begins at the age of seven after 2 years of pre-schooling. One can observe that the first hurdle or streaming exercise takes place at the end of the fourth year of education at the age of ten. There is another selection exercise at the age of nine to select gifted students for an enrichment programme that is within the primary education system. The recent exercise in 1997 saw a total of some 53,770 students vie for a place in the programme. The results from two rounds of selection were recently announced. 3,000 students were selected after the first round. Finally, 440 students were selected and offered a place in the programme (Ministry of Education, 1997). The degree, to which selection based on the abilities of the students, is applied in the education system and is an example of the boldness with which the authorities act in human resource matters. There are limited places in the universities because there are currently two comprehensive universities offering full-time degree courses with an additional open university based on the U. K. Open University model. The places for the various disciplines are partly determined by the CPTE as mentioned earlier. The types of programmes offered at the post-secondary and university levels are determined by the human resource needs of the country. At the primary and secondary levels, human resource development is visible in the introduction of creative thinking and computer literacy subjects, which are relevant for an economy that the planners intend to be based on innovations and creations and in tune with the information age.

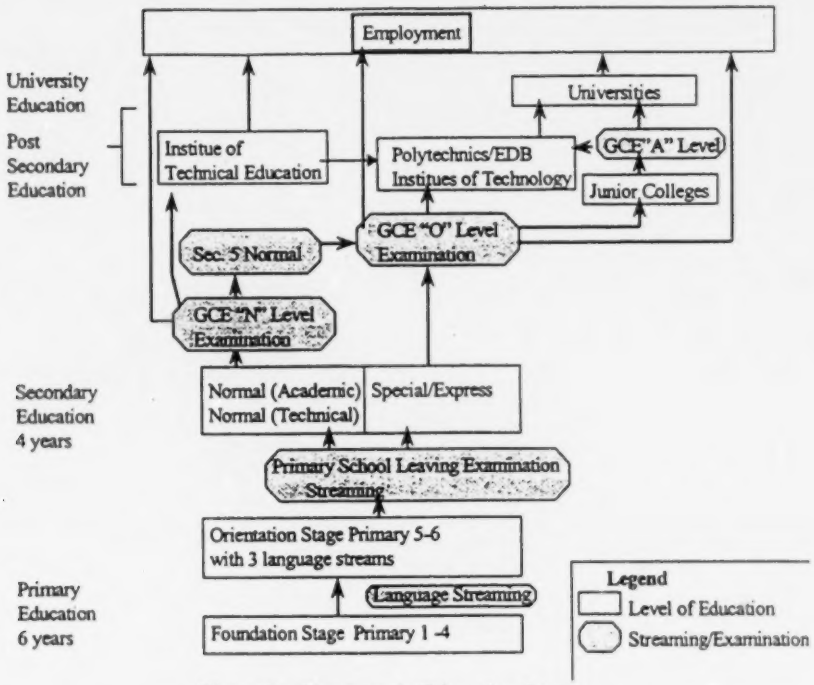

Figure 2 : Singapore's Education System

Singapore's Recent HRD Policies. HRD has gained increased attention as a key element of Singapore's strategies - it is now considered a Strategic Economic Thrust. In 1991, a government committee identified enhancing human resources as the top strategic thrust for Singapore (Ministry of Trade and Industry, 1991). These eight thrusts are shown in Figure 3.

Thrusts of Singapore's Strategic Economic Plan (SEP)	
Strategic Thrust 1	Enhancing Human Resources
Programme 1:	International Manpower Program
Strategic Thrust 2	Promoting National Teamwork
Programme 2:	Establishment of an Economic Panel
Strategic Thrust 3	Becoming Internationally Oriented
Programme 3:	Preparing Singaporeans for International Assignments
Programme 4:	Promoting the Growth Triangle and Business Alliances with the Region
Programme 5:	Developing Information Infrastructure
Strategic Thrust 4	Creating a Conducive Climate for Innovation
Programme 6:	Reviewing Government Rules which Hinder Innovation
Strategic Thrust 5	Developing Manufacturing an service Clusters
Programme 7:	Implementation of Cluster-based Development Plans
Programme 8:	Cluster Workshops
Programme 9:	Improving the Bond between Employers and Employees
Programme 10:	Improving the Overall Balance between Supply and Demand of Labour
Strategic Thrust 6	Spearheading Economic Redevelopment
Programme 11:	Multi-Agency Task-force on Economic Redevelopment
Strategic Thrust 7	Maintaining International Competitiveness
Programme 12:	Establishment of a Competitiveness Monitoring Group
Strategic Thrust 8	Reducing Vulnerability
Programme 13:	Establishment of a Scenario Analysis Group
Programme 14:	Strengthening the Home-base Character of Multinational Companies
Source: (Wong and Ng, 1993)	

Figure 3 : Strategic Economic Plan of Singapore

The committee found that various aspects of Singapore's "soft" infrastructure (non-physical and capital resources of an economy that make it dynamic) needed improvement. Two of these are addressed by the human resource development thrust: education and training, and human resource quality. Three areas for the enhancement of human resources were earmarked for implementation, namely:

- Increasing the supply of top echelon of talented and professional people.
- Adopting life cycle perspective for the education and training programmes.
- Introducing a programme to accelerate the upgrading of the working population with an education level of primary 6 or less (i.e., less than 6 years of schooling).

The Committee also recommended as another strategic thrust, the creation of a conducive climate for innovation. Although human resource development is not specifically mentioned under this thrust, human resource development is required as training and development in the areas of technology, creativity and innovation are required.

International Manpower Programme. This is a programme that was introduced after the Committee's report in 1991, to attract international talents. This programme involved, making adjustment to the existing immigration rules to facilitate talented people to Singapore and establishing a network of Singapore Clubs around the world to reach out to individuals who are positively inclined towards Singapore. In addition to these two measures, efforts have been made to establish a scientific habitat to attract R & D manpower and in conjunction with this, the establishment of research centres. The National Science and Technology Board (NSTB) is responsible for the Research Scientists and Engineers Programme (discussed below).

Local Enterprise Scholarships. These scholarships are a reflection for the HRD strategy towards grooming human resources for local enterprises. The EDB offers scholarships to build a strong team of middle-management and technical personnel for the long-term growth of promising local enterprises. The scholarship program was launched in 1996 and the EDB intends to offer one hundred such scholarships over a five-year period. Nine companies participated in the inaugural programme to sponsor 17 scholars.

R & D staff. The National Science and Technology Board (NSTB) fund the Research Scientists and Engineers Programme that is aimed at attracting trained postgraduate scholars from all over the world and placing them in universities or research institutes for an initial period of up to three years. The NSTB also administers the Research and Development Assistance Scheme through which qualifying companies can obtain support to cover costs incurred in R&D manpower. The NSTB's Research Incentive Scheme for Companies provides support for companies to develop in-house R&D capabilities in Singapore - manpower being one of the fundable costs.

Conclusion

Singapore provides an interesting case-study of human resource development as a national strategy. The human resource strategy is integrated with the economic and national strategies for the nation. There exists a national structure of government agencies and organizations responsible for planning and implementing the strategy. This paper has sought to provide a brief account of the Singapore case by identifying the role of the relevant institutions for national HRD strategies. There are lessons that other economies can emulate. However, an important caveat has to be noted. There is a unique incidence of factors - committed government, a network of agencies and tripartitism. These factors may have arisen by design in some cases, and in others they may have evolved through the press. Having mentioned the caveat, the Singapore case does indicate that governments seeking to pursue national human resource development strategies need to have these strategies integrated with other national objectives. Further, the planning, implementation and evaluation of the strategies need to be multi-departmental in approach. The tendency to leave the area to a specific government agency whilst placing it in the hands of specialists leaves out the possibility of implementation across the various levels in the economy. The single agency approach also often leads to the omission of other considerations that other departments may be able to provide.

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ENDNOTES:

[1] The current composition of the Council for Professional and Technical Education was provided by the Deputy Director responsible for the CPTE at the Ministry of Trade and Industry.